DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 327 797 CG 023 101

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TITLE Counselor Attractiveness, Similarity, and Session Impact: A Field Study.
PUB DATE Aug 90
NOTE 38p.; Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association (98th, Boston, MA, August 10-14, 1990).
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Congruence (Psychology); Counseling Effectiveness; *Counselor Characteristics; *Counselor Client Relationship; *Cues; Higher Education; *Interpersonal Attraction; Outcomes of Treatment; *Physical Attractiveness

ABSTRACT

Past research has suggested that interpersonal influence in counseling is enhanced as clients perceive their counselors to be interpersonally attractive and similar to themselves. This study examined the relationship of specific verbal and nonverbal cues to perceived counselor attractiveness in a field setting, and explored the relation between perceived counselor attractiveness and session impact, the client's perception of the qualities of a therapeutic session, and their feelings about the session. Clients (N=25) at a university counseling center, each seeing a different counselor, rated their counselors in terms of behavioral cues associated with attractiveness and session impact. Clients completed the attractiveness scale from the Counselor Rating Form, three additional items that assessed the similarity aspect of attractiveness, the expertness and trustworthiness scales from the Counselor Rating Form--Short Version, the Comparison Form to Measure the relative importance of six verbal and nonverbal cues in overall perceptions of the counselor, and the Session Evaluation Questionnaire to measure the impact of the counselor on the client in the session. The results indicated that counselor nonverbal behaviors were more salient to attractiveness ratings than were verbal behaviors. Perceived counselor attractiveness was not related to session impact, but expertness and trustworthiness were related. Similarity of the client to the counselor was associated with one aspect of session impact, session evaluation. (NB)

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ED327797

Counselor Attractiveness, Similarity, and Session Impact: A Field Study

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Paper presented at the American Psychological Association meeting at Boston, Massachusetts: August, 1990.

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Abstract

Interpersonal influence in counseling is enhanced as clients perceive their counselors to be interpersonally attractive and similar to themselves (Strong, 1968). Twenty-five clients rated their counselors in terms of behavioral cues associated with attractiveness and session impact. Results indicated that counselor nonverbal behaviors were more salient to attractiveness ratings than verbal behaviors. Perceived counselor attractiveness was not related to session impact, but expertness and trustworthiness were related. Similarity of the client to the counselor was associated with one aspect of session impact, session evaluation.

Counselor Attractiveness, Similarity, and Session Impact: A Field Study

Counseling can be seen as an interpersonal influence process, wherein the goal of counselor behavior is to make a psychological impact on the client that will facilitate client change. Counseling theory seeks to explain and predict the change mechanisms at work in this process.

Approaching influence from a cognitive dissonance perspective, Strong (1968) applied research on attitude change to the counseling relationship. Strong posited that dissonance is created when the counselor's remarks are discrepant from the client's beliefs. Dissonance creates psychological discomfort within the client, which the client strives to reduce. One of the client's means of reducing dissonance is to discredit the counselor. The client has difficulty discrediting the counselor when the counselor is perceived as expert, attractive, and trustworthy.

Strong and Matross (1973) argued that client needs and counselor resources combine to create a base of counselor social power. Two types of power bases that are particularly salient to the counseling interview are expert and referent power. Expert power derives from the client's need for the particular knowledge and skills of the counselor. Referent power derives from similarities in counselor and client world view, whereby the client views the counselor as a role model, or referent,

whose behavior is more adaptive than the client's. The client, in such instances, is more likely to accept the counselor's communications if the counselor is perceived as interpersonally attractive -- that is, similar to the client on important dimensions.

Counselor attractiveness is based on perceived similarity to, compatibility with, and liking for the client (Strong, 1968). It is important that clients see similarities as relevant to themselves, as recipients of influence (Simons, Berkowitz, & Moyer, 1970; Strong, 1968). If similarity and liking are important to clients' perceptions of attractiveness, then it is important to understand how these qualities are communicated to clients. Counseling process research has investigated the ways in which clients perceive counselors as attractive. Two major types of studies have been used for this purpose: laboratory analogue studies and field studies.

Several analogue studies have shown that perceived similarity and liking are communicated through a variety of verbal behaviors. Audiovisual, scripted interview, and live interview laboratory studies have demonstrated that moderate levels of the following verbal behaviors are linked positively to perceived counselor attractiveness: counselor self disclosure (Claiborn, Hackman, & Martinez, 1982; Dowd & Boroto, 1982; Merluzzi, Banikiotes, & Missbach, 1978; Robbins & Haase, 1985; Schmidt & Strong, 1971); attitude similarity (Holland, Atkinson,

& Johnson, 1987), use of the client's name (Robbins & Haase, 1985); and self-involving statements (Andersen & Anderson, 1985; Dowd & Boroto, 1982; Remer, Roffey, & Buckholtz, 1983; Strong & Dixon, 1971).

In addition, audiovisual analogue studies have examined the role of counselor nonverbal behavior, which communicates primarily counselor liking for the client. In these studies, high levels of responsive nonverbal cues have consistently yielded higher ratings of counselor attractiveness than low levels of these behaviors. Such behaviors include smiles, positive head nods, hand gestures, handshake, eye contact, direct (0 degree) angle of shoulder orientation, and forward body lean (Barak, Patkin, & Dell, 1982; Claiborn, 1979; Hackman & Claiborn, 1982; LaCrosse, 1975; Robbins & Haase, 1985; Roll, Crowley, & Rappl, 1985). Vocal expressiveness and facial expression have been found to influence attractiveness, as well (Claiborn, 1979; Tepper & Haase, 1978). In addition, nonverbal behaviors have been found to contribute more to perceptions of attractiveness than verbal behaviors (Barak, Patkin, & Dell, 1982; Claiborn, 1979; Claiborn, Hackman, & Martinez, 1982). Live interview analogue studies have demonstrated a positive connection between responsive nonverbal cues and perceived attractiveness, as well (Schmidt & Strong, 1971; Strong & Dixon, 1971). However, one study yielded positive attractiveness ratings for responsive nonverbal behavior in an audiovisual

analogue, but not in a 10-minute interview analogue (Fretz, Corn, Tuemmler, & Bellet, 1979).

The evidence produced by audiovisual, scripted, and live interview laboratory analogue studies suggests that research participants are able to differentiate between attractive and unattractive counselor conditions, and that verbal behaviors, such as self-disclosure, self-involving statements, use of the client's name, and expression of attitude similarity, enhance ratings of perceived attractiveness. In addition, high levels of responsive nonverbal behavior have been shown to produce increments in perceptions of counselor attractiveness.

While laboratory analogue studies have contributed to our understanding of components of the counseling process, problems exist in translating their results to actual counseling interviews. Generalizability of audiovisual and scripted analogue studies is limited because participants act as third party observers; they are not personally involved in the process. In contrast, live interview counseling analogue studies actively involve the participant in the interview. However, conclusions drawn from live interviews are limited for a number of reasons. Participants are usually recruited from undergraduate college courses and may be required to volunteer as experimental subjects. The prearranged topic and structured interview may or may not address problems or issues relevant to participants. Further, these studies are usually single-session

events lasting from 10 to 50 minutes.

While counseling analogue studies suggest several types of behaviors that enhance perceptions of counselor attractiveness, such studies do not clarify the contribution of these behaviors to counselor attractiveness in actual counseling situations. Field research has been conducted to bridge the gap between laboratory analogue findings and actual counseling processes. Two major lines of research have investigated the effects of counselor characteristics, such as attractiveness, on premature termination and various counseling outcomes.

The relationship between premature termination and perceived counselor characteristics was explored in several studies. Zamostny, Corrigan, & Eggert (1981) found that clients expressed preferences for expert, attractive, and trustworthy counselors before intake; clients perceived these attributes later in the actual interview, as well. Expertness and trustworthiness contributed to client satisfaction with intake but failed to predict whether or not clients returned for their first scheduled appointment. Kokotovic and Tracey (1987) compared clients who continued in counseling with dropouts, and they found no difference between the two groups on ratings of perceived counselor attractiveness. However, clients who perceived their counselors as trustworthy and expert were more likely to return for scheduled appointments. Finally, McNeill, May, and Lee (1987) found that premature terminators perceived

counselors as less expert, attractive, and trustworthy than successful terminators. Premature terminators who continued longer in counseling were more satisfied with the process regardless of their counselors' perceived attributes.

The second line of field research has examined how perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness change over time and how these perceptions affect counselor influence. Heppner and Heesacker (1982) hypothesized that client ratings of perceived counselor characteristics would increase over the course of counseling, which, in their study, averaged about eight sessions per client. The investigators found that clients rated counselors positively on expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness throughout counseling, but that these ratings changed over time in different directions. About half of the clients increased their counselors' ratings, and half decreased the ratings. Counselors who were rated as highly attractive by clients saw themselves as having more influence over clients than counselors rated as moderately attractive. However, the clients' perceptions of counselor influence were not measured. In another study, LaCrosse (1980) found that perceptions of the counselor improved between the beginning and end of counseling. Further, clients having high expectations of counseling increased their ratings of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness more than clients with lower expectations.

Heppner and Heesacker (1983) found that client expectations of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness before entering counseling were not good predictors of perceived counselor characteristics later in counseling. However, they found that these expectations correlated with client satisfaction at the end of counseling. Finally, Dorn and Day (1985) examined change in client self-concept as a function of the counselor's perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Counselor trustworthiness and client motivation predicted change in self-concept; counselor expertness and attractiveness did not.

These field studies demonstrated that perceived counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness are associated with returning for appointments, client satisfaction with intake and the course of counseling, counselor influence, and change in client self-concept. Looking at perceived attractiveness alone, however, the results are mixed. High ratings of counselor attractiveness have been associated with high expectations of counseling and client satisfaction at the end of counseling. Attractiveness was not associated, however, with satisfaction with intake, premature termination, precounseling expectations of counselor characteristics, and change in self-concept.

As useful as these field studies are in linking counselor characteristics with various counseling outcomes, they fail to bridge the gap completely between laboratory analogue research

and actual counseling. Neither have they addressed the contribution of specific counselor behaviors to client perceptions of counselor attractiveness, nor have they linked attractiveness to counseling outcome, or even influence in the counseling process. In the present study, we examined the relationship of specific verbal and nonverbal cues to perceived counselor attractiveness, but in a field setting. In addition, we explored the relation between perceived counselor attractiveness and a specific counseling sub-outcome, session impact. Session impact refers to the client's perception of the qualities of a therapeutic session, as well as their feelings about the session. The goal in assessing session impact is to discern the intermediate stage between the psychotherapeutic interaction and eventual counseling outcome -- that is, what goes on in particular counseling sessions that ultimately contributes to positive outcome (Stiles, 1980).

Three hypotheses were tested in this study:

1. Specific verbal cues (similarity of counselor attitudes, values, and experiences) and nonverbal cues (head movements, facial expression, sitting position, voice expressiveness) influence perceptions of counselor attractiveness differentially;

2. Clients value specific verbal and nonverbal cues differentially; and

3. Perceived counselor attractiveness and similarity are

related to session impact, particularly when expertness and trustworthiness are controlled.

Method

Participants

Twenty-five clients at counseling centers at The University of Iowa, the University of Nebraska - Lincoln, Colorado State University, and the University of Oregon participated in the study. Twenty-two participants (88%) were women. The mean age of the participants was 26.4 years with a range of 18 to 42. One participant identified herself as American Indian; the remainder identified themselves as Caucasian. Fourteen of the clients (56%) had seen a counselor prior to their current counseling experience. All participants presented with personal concerns; in addition, 12% sought help with career concerns, and 8% with academic concerns.

Dependent Measures

Counselor attractiveness was measured by the attractiveness scale from the Counselor Rating Form (CRF: Barak & LaCrosse, 1975). The CRF is a semantic differential instrument consisting of 36 7-point items of bipolar adjectives comprising three scales: expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. The attractiveness scale comprises 12 items that assess primarily the liking aspect of attractiveness (e.g., warm - cold). Attractiveness scores have a range from 12 to 84, with high scores indicating more attractiveness. Three items were added

to assess the similarity aspect of attractiveness: similar to me, attitudes and values similar to mine, and experiences similar to mine. These items were scored as a separate scale with a range of 3 to 21, high scores indicating more similarity. Split-half reliability of the attractiveness scale is .85 (LaCrosse & Barak, 1976). Internal consistency reliabilities for the attractiveness and similarity scales in this study were .87 and .65, respectively.

Each item of the attractiveness and similarity scales was accompanied by a list of six counselor behaviors: two verbal behaviors (similarity of attitudes or values and similarity of experiences) and four nonverbal behaviors (head movements, facial expression, sitting position, and voice expressiveness). The behavioral cues were chosen according to their contributions to perceived counselor attractiveness in previous studies (e.g., Barak, Patkin, & Dell, 1982; Hackman & Claiborn, 1982; Robbins & Haase, 1985). The resulting instrument was called the Counselor Rating Scales (CRS). Participants responded to each item by first rating the counselor on the bipolar dimension, which is the usual procedure for completing the CRF. Next, participants ranked the six cues according to the extent to which each cue affected the participant's rating of the counselor on that particular dimension. To avoid bias in ranking, cue order was varied from item to item. Mean ranks for each behavioral cue for each item on the attractiveness and similarity scales were

computed.

The expertness and trustworthiness scales from the Counselor Rating Form - Short Version (CRF-S; Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983) were used to measure client perceptions of counselor expertness and trustworthiness. These two characteristics are each represented by four adjectives (e.g., skillful). A seven-point scale permitted the participant to rate the counselor from "not very" (1) to "very" (7) on each of the eight adjectives. Thus, each scale yields a score ranging from 4 to 28. Interitem reliabilities across counselors and settings have been reported for expertness (.85 to .94) and trustworthiness (.82 to .91) (Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983). In addition, it should be noted that the CRF scales were intercorrelated. In this study, the expertness and trustworthiness scales were correlated highly (.94), as were expertness and attractiveness (.44) and trustworthiness and attractiveness (.58).

The Comparison Form was used to measure the relative importance of the six verbal and nonverbal cues in overall perceptions of the counselor. On this instrument, each cue was paired with every other cue, in random order, making a total of 15 items. The participant circled the one behavior in each pair that she or he considered to be more important for a counselor to exhibit. Comparison Form data were analyzed using Thurstone's (1927) Law of Comparative Judgment, which placed each cue on an interval scale indicating its relative

importance.

The Session Evaluation Questionnaire (SEQ; Stiles, 1980) was used to measure the impact of the counselor on the client in the session; it was the primary measure of influence in this study. The SEQ consists of 24 bipolar adjective scales in a 9-point semantic differential format. Directions instructed the respondents to "place an 'X' on each line to show how you feel about this session." In Part 1, session evaluation, the statement "This session was..." was followed by 12 adjective pairs (e.g., safe - difficult). This part measured the overall quality of the session. In Part II, session feeling, the statement "Right now I feel..." was followed by 12 adjective pairs (e.g., angry - pleased). This part measured postsession mood. Mean ratings from Parts 1 and 2 were computed separately to yield a session evaluation score and a feeling score ranging from 12 to 108, higher scores indicating a more positive impact. Internal consistency reliabilities for the two scales in this study were .87 and .86, respectively.

Procedure

Counselors at each site were asked to recruit one client to participate in the study. Counselors asked one client whom they had seen two or more sessions (but not the client's final session) to participate. If counselors had more than one client in this category, they were asked to select the client whom they saw at 10:00 a.m. on Tuesdays, or as soon after that time as

possible, to minimize counselor bias in the selection of candidates for the study. Twenty-five counselors successfully recruited one client each.

Before consenting to participate, participants read a form explaining that the purpose of the study was to find out how people describe their counselors and feel about their counseling sessions. They were asked to fill out the forms immediately after their next counseling session. Participants completed the forms in the reception area. They were assured that their counselors would not see their responses and that their participation or lack thereof would in no way affect the services they received. All responses were anonymous; completed measures were placed in sealed envelopes and were mailed or placed in a secure location until collected by the investigator. After completing the measures, participants read a debriefing form explaining how the data were to be used and what the investigator expected to learn.

Results

Hypothesis 1 was tested by computing the mean rank and standard deviation for each cue for each item of the attractiveness and similarity scales. These data are presented in Table 1. Mean ranks were computed separately for clients

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Insert Table 1 about here

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rating their counselor positively (greater than 4 on the 7-point scale) and negatively (less than 4) on each item. Positive ratings predominated for the attractiveness scale items but were more evenly mixed with negative ratings for the similarity scale items.

The data clearly supported Hypothesis 1. For clients rating their counselor positively on the attractiveness scale items, the nonverbal cue Voice Expressiveness was ranked as the most important cue contributing to clients' judgments on 8 of the 12 items and was second most important on the remaining 4 items. Another nonverbal cue, Facial Expression, was ranked most important for 3 of the 12 items and second most important for 7 more items. The verbal cue Experiences was ranked least important on 9 of the 12 Attractiveness scale items. The rank ordering of cues differed for clients rating their counselors negatively on the Casual/Formal item only.

For the similarity scale items, clients who rated their counselor positively ranked Attitudes/Values as the most important cue for two of the three items, and second most important for the third item. For clients rating their counselors negatively, Attitudes/Values was ranked most important for one item (Similar Attitudes), but Facial Expression was ranked first for the other two items. Sitting Position was ranked least or second least important for all three Similarity scale items, both for positive and negative

counselor ratings.

Hypothesis 2 was tested with Comparison Form data using the Law of Comparative Judgment (Thurstone, 1927). In this procedure, the number of participants choosing one stimulus over another is obtained, yielding a matrix of proportions. An inverse normal transformation is used to obtain an associated z-score for each proportion, and these z-scores are averaged. An arbitrary origin of zero is assigned and all scores are transformed and placed on a continuous interval scale. These data are presented in Figure 1. The behaviors judged by clients

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Insert Figure 1 about here

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as most important for counselors to exhibit were facial expression, voice expressiveness, and the expression of similar attitudes. The expression of similar experiences, sitting position, and head movements were judged least important by clients. Hypothesis 2, that clients value specific verbal and nonverbal cues differentially, was thus supported.

Hypothesis 3 was tested with a series of Pearson product-moment correlations. These data are presented in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 about here

First, attractiveness was correlated with session evaluation and

session feeling. The results of these analyses were not significant, indicating that counselors' perceived attractiveness was not related to session impact. Second, similarity was correlated with session evaluation and session feeling. There was a significant correlation between similarity and session evaluation, $r = .35$, $p < .05$, indicating that perceived counselor similarity was related to clients' positive feelings about the session. The remaining correlation was not significant. In addition, significant correlations were found between expertness and session evaluation ($r = .38$, $p < .05$) and trustworthiness and session evaluation ($r = .47$, $p < .05$). Finally, partial correlations were used to examine the relation between attractiveness and similarity, on the one hand, and session evaluation and feeling, on the other, controlling for expertness and trustworthiness. No significant results were obtained. Hypothesis 3, that perceived counselor attractiveness and similarity are related to session impact, was only partially supported.

Discussion

This study sought to provide answers for three questions about clients' perceptions of counselor attractiveness in a field setting. The first question asked was: Do counselor verbal cues and nonverbal cues influence clients' perceptions of counselor attractiveness differentially? To answer this question, clients were first divided into groups according to

whether they rated their counselors positively or negatively on the attractiveness and similarity scale items, and mean ranks for the cues were computed separately. The order in which clients in the two groups rated the six cues for each scale item did not differ substantially; therefore, the following discussion will assume no positive-negative client dimension.

Two nonverbal cues, voice expressiveness and facial expression, were consistently among the two most important cues influencing clients' perceptions on the attractiveness scale items that reflect counselor liking for the client. That is, when judging which of the six cues were most important to clients' ratings of counselors on such dimensions as friendly/unfriendly and close/distant, voice expressiveness was the most important cue clients used, and facial expression was the second most important cue. These results are consistent with those of audiovisual analogue studies, in that nonverbal behaviors contribute more to perceptions of attractiveness than verbal behaviors (e.g., Barak, Patkin, & Dell, 1982; Claiborn, Hackman, & Martinez, 1982). In addition, these findings support results obtained in audiovisual analogue studies that examine these two cues specifically (Claiborn, 1979; Tepper & Haase, 1978). In contrast, the two remaining nonverbal cues, head movements and sitting position, were consistently ranked among the least important behavioral cues. These cues, in the form of head nods and body lean, have been found to be important in the

audiovisual analogue literature, but it should be remembered that high and low levels of these cues were purposely manipulated in the analogue studies. One possible reason for discrepant results in the present study is that subjects were asked to respond to head movement cues as opposed to head nod cues and sitting position as opposed to body lean. These less specific instructions may have altered participants' responses to the items. In addition, these behaviors were not likely to be exaggerated in an actual counseling setting, while they were probably exaggerated in the experiments. Therefore, it is unlikely that clients noticed counselors' head nods and body lean or considered them to be important behaviors in the session.

Verbal cues were clearly less important than nonverbal cues in clients' ratings of counselor attractiveness, but they were not altogether unimportant. The expression of similar attitudes, for example, was rated third most important of the six cues on eight of the twelve attractiveness scale items and first, second, or fourth on the four remaining items. Although clients may view voice quality and facial expression as the most important indices of the counselor's liking for the client, these rankings suggest that the counselor's verbalization of her or his attitudes and values make an important contribution, as well.

Expressing similar experiences was ranked least important on

75% of the attractiveness scale items. This result is consistent with previous analogue research findings that verbal behaviors influence perceptions of attractiveness less than nonverbal behaviors (e.g., Claiborn, Hackman, & Martinez, 1982). According to Simons, Berkowitz, and Moyer (1970), similarity must be viewed by the listener as relevant to the listener if influence is to occur. In real counseling sessions it is possible that clients perceive some similarities they may have to the counselor as unimportant to their work together. In addition, counselors may vary a great deal in the number of personal experiences they choose to share with clients.

The second hypothesis addressed the ways in which clients value specific counselor verbal and nonverbal behaviors. Nonverbal cues such as facial expression and voice expressiveness were valued most highly by clients. Similar results were obtained by Claiborn, Hackman, and Martinez (1982), who found that eye contact and vocal expressiveness were the most important contributors to client ratings of attractiveness. There appear to be two clusters of cues judged positively and negatively by clients, each cluster containing one verbal (or similarity) cue. Facial expression, voice expressiveness, and the expression of similar attitudes were valued highly; however, the expression of similar experiences, sitting position, and head movements were valued less. Since counseling is a face-to-face encounter involving primarily

speaking and communicating through facial features, the nonverbal finding is not surprising. Results suggest that clients are probably more attuned to what the counselor is saying (if it is relevant) and the counselor's facial expressions than to how they use the rest of their body.

Regarding the two verbal cues, expressing similar attitudes and values was more highly valued by clients than expressing similar experiences. This may be due to the fact that clients can pick up on counselors' attitudes and values without the counselors' specific intentions, but experiences must be shared by counselors if they are to be communicated. In addition, clients are probably more concerned about what their counselors feel or think about client experiences than they are with whether or not counselors share similar experiences.

Results did not fully support Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 was tested using correlations and partial correlations, which are adversely affected by small sample sizes. In this study, the power to obtain significant correlations was quite low due to a small sample size; some significant correlations were obtained nonetheless. Perceived counselor attractiveness was not related to how clients evaluated their counseling session or to how they felt about the session. These results suggest that clients may not need to feel liked by their counselors (as communicated by nonverbal behaviors) in order to work effectively with them. Similar results have been obtained in

field studies. For example, Zamostny, Corrigan, and Eggert (1981) found that counselor attractiveness did not influence clients' satisfaction with an intake interview.

Similarity, however, was related to session evaluation. It appears from these results that the similarity aspect of attractiveness is more influential than the liking aspect in terms of session impact. The effects of similarity and liking on counseling outcome have not been compared in field studies. However, similarity on important dimensions, such as values, has been documented by Simons, Berkowitz, and Moyer (1970). Future studies could clarify the relationships between counseling outcome and various aspects of similarity, such as group membership and personal values.

Although not hypothesized, significant relationships between expertness and session evaluation and trustworthiness and session evaluation were found. This result supports other field study findings that expertness and trustworthiness appear to influence various counseling outcomes more than attractiveness (e.g., Dorn & Day, 1985). Expertness and trustworthiness may be more influential because they reflect counselor competence. In order for an effective therapeutic relationship to exist, it may be necessary for clients to view their counselors as having specific technical resources to meet their needs (Strong & Matross, 1973). Attractiveness may be a desirable but unnecessary component of an effective therapeutic relationship,

at least in the settings used in this study.

It is possible that the small sample size in this study contributed to the lack of significant findings vis-a-vis attractiveness. However, the fact that the similarity aspect of attractiveness was related to how people evaluate their sessions is noteworthy and deserves further study. Specifically, more attention should be paid to the influence of similar client-counselor attitudes and values in the counseling process and the measurement of these constructs. In addition, the results of this study suggest that further investigation of the influence of expertness and trustworthiness on counseling outcome is warranted.

The second contribution of this study to our knowledge of counseling processes is a confirmation of the importance of nonverbal behaviors. This notion has been well established in the analogue literature. The present study reiterates the value clients in actual counseling settings place on nonverbal behaviors, especially voice quality and facial expressions. This suggests that counselors should attend to the fact that what is communicated to the client in words may be less important than what is communicated nonverbally.

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Table 1

Ranked Behavioral Cues for Attractiveness and Similarity Scale Items

	Evaluation of the Counselor					
	Positive			Negative		
Scale and Cues	Rank	M	SD	Rank	M	SD
Agreeable/Disagreeable	(n = 22)			(n = 0)		
Voice Expressiveness	1	1.86	0.89			
Facial Expression	2	2.09	1.15			
Attitudes/Values	3	3.73	1.42			
Head Movements	4	3.86	1.45			
Sitting Position	5	4.55	1.22			
Experiences	6	4.91	1.51			
Attractive/Unattractive	(n = 18)			(n = 1)		
Facial Expression	1	1.61	0.78			
Voice Expressiveness	2	2.00	1.24			
Attitudes/Values	3	3.78	1.35			
Head Movements	4	3.83	1.04			
Sitting Position	5	4.33	1.61			
Experiences	6	5.17	0.92			
Casual/Formal	(n = 12)			(n = 7)		
Voice Expressiveness	1	2.17	1.03	2	2.71	1.60
Sitting Position	2	2.42	2.06	1	2.00	1.92
Facial Expression	3	2.83	0.72	3.5	3.00	0.57
Attitudes/Values	4	3.92	1.62	5	4.57	1.27
Head Movements	5	4.08	0.90	3.5	3.00	1.00
Experiences	6	5.58	0.90	6	5.71	0.49

Evaluation of the Counselor

	Positive			Negative		
Scale and Cues	Rank	M	SD	Rank	M	SD
Cheerful/Depressed		(n = 15)			(n = 2)	
Facial Expression	1	1.47	0.64			
Voice Expressiveness	2	1.73	0.59			
Attitudes/Values	3	3.80	1.27			
Head Movements	4	4.07	1.03			
Sitting Position	5	4.53	0.91			
Experiences	6	5.40	1.12			
Appreciative/Unappreciative		(n = 19)			(n = 0)	
Facial Expression	1	2.37	1.26			
Attitudes/Values	2	2.63	1.80			
Voice Expressiveness	3	2.74	1.15			
Head Movements	4	3.74	1.59			
Experiences	5	4.63	1.50			
Sitting Position	6	4.90	1.15			
Close/Distant		(n = 16)			(n = 5)	
Voice Expressiveness	1	2.19	1.17	1	2.80	1.79
Facial Expression	2	2.44	1.59	2	3.00	1.73
Sitting Position	3	3.06	1.81	3	3.20	2.05
Attitudes/Values	4	3.81	1.28	4	3.60	1.34
Head Movements	5	4.19	1.11	6	4.60	1.34
Experiences	6	5.00	1.55	5	3.80	2.28

Evaluation of the Counselor

		Positive			Negative	
Scale and Cues	Rank	M	SD	Rank	M	SD
Compatible/Incompatible		(n = 21)			(n = 2)	
Attitudes/Values	1	2.00	1.41			
Voice Expressiveness	2	2.19	1.17			
Facial Expression	3	2.91	0.94			
Experiences	4	4.43	1.69			
Sitting Position	5	4.67	1.32			
Head Movements	6	4.81	0.93			
Enthusiastic/Indifferent		(n = 19)			(n = 1)	
Voice Expressiveness	1	1.53	0.84			
Facial Expression	2	2.32	0.89			
Attitudes/Values	3	3.79	1.58			
Sitting Position	4	4.05	1.43			
Head Movements	5	4.26	1.24			
Experiences	6	5.05	1.31			
Friendly/Unfriendly		(n = 23)			(n = 0)	
Voice Expressiveness	1	1.91	0.85			
Facial Expression	2	2.00	1.04			
Attitudes/Values	3	3.57	1.75			
Head Movements	4	4.17	1.23			
Sitting Position	5	4.39	1.20			
Experiences	6	4.96	1.40			

Evaluation of the Counselor

		Positive			Negative	
Scale and Cues	Rank	M	SD	Rank	M	SD
Likable/Unlikable		(n = 24)			(n = 1)	
Voice Expressiveness	1	2.25	1.36			
Facial Expression	2	2.38	1.21			
Attitudes/Values	3	2.67	1.74			
Head Movements	4	4.42	1.10			
Experiences	5	4.63	1.56			
Sitting Position	6	4.67	1.01			
Sociable/Unsociable		(n = 21)			(n = 2)	
Voice Expressiveness	1	1.91	1.04			
Facial Expression	2	1.95	0.92			
Attitudes/Values	3	3.48	1.54			
Head Movements	4	4.19	1.17			
Sitting Position	5	4.62	1.20			
Experiences	6	4.86	1.53			
Warm/Cold		(n = 20)			(n = 1)	
Voice Expressivenss	1	1.70	1.03			
Facial Expression	2	2.10	1.02			
Attitudes/Values	3	3.45	1.40			
Head Movements	4	4.25	1.33			
Sitting Position	5	4.30	1.17			
Experiences	6	5.20	1.20			

	Evaluation of the Counselor					
	Positive			Negative		
Scale and Cues	Rank	M	SD	Rank	M	SD
Similar to Me/Dissimilar to Me	(n = 12)			(n = 6)		
Attitudes/Values	1	2.00	1.28	2.5	2.83	2.23
Experiences	2	2.58	1.51	2.5	2.83	2.14
Voice Expressiveness	3	2.67	1.30	4	3.50	1.23
Facial Expression	4	3.75	1.29	1	2.50	1.05
Head Movements	5	4.58	0.67	6	4.83	1.33
Sitting Position	6	5.42	1.38	5	4.50	1.23
Similar/Dissimilar Attitudes	(n = 14)			(n = 5)		
Attitudes/Values	1	1.64	1.34	1	1.60	0.89
Voice Expressiveness	2	2.71	1.27	2	2.40	1.14
Facial Expression	3	3.14	1.29	3	2.80	0.84
Experiences	4	3.86	1.79	4	4.40	2.30
Head Movements	5	4.79	0.80	5	4.80	0.45
Sitting Position	6	4.86	1.23	6	5.00	1.00
Similar/Dissimilar Experiences	(n = 6)			(n = 7)		
Experiences	1	1.33	0.52	3	2.86	2.41
Attitudes/Values	2	1.67	0.52	2	2.71	0.49
Voice Expressiveness	3	3.83	0.75	4	3.43	1.40
Facial Expression	4	4.17	1.17	1	2.00	1.16
Head Movements	5	4.67	1.03	5	4.43	0.79
Sitting Position	6	5.33	1.21	6	5.57	0.79

Note. Cues are listed in rank order for the positive ratings on each item. Data for cues in which fewer than three participants rated the counselor negatively were not included in the table. The items of the attractiveness scale were adapted from the Counselor Rating Form (CRF: Barak & LaCrosse, 1975).

Table 2

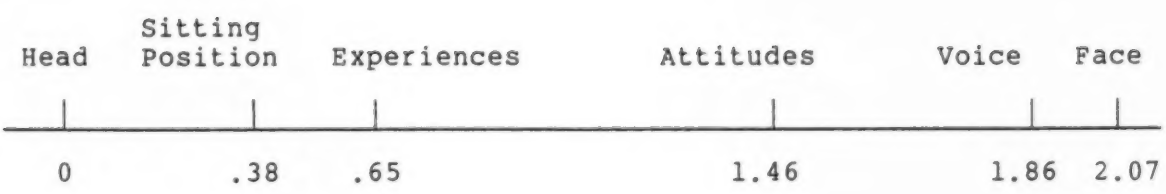
Correlations Among CRF Scales and Session Impact Scales

	CRF Scales			
Session Impact	Attractiveness	Similarity	Expertness	Trustworthiness
Evaluation	.26	.35*	.38*	.47*
Feeling	.27	.12	.07	.21

*$p < .05$.

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Cue values arranged on Thurstone's interval scale.


Head
Sitting Position
Experiences
Attitudes
Voice
Face
0
.38
.65
1.46
1.86
2.07